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Atomic sulfur dissimilation remolding ZnIn₂S₄ nanosheets surface to enhance built-internal electric field for photocatalytic CO₂ conversion to syngas

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ABSTRACT

The CO_2 photoreduction of efficiency is severely limited by the sluggish charge kinetics and difficult CO_2 adsorption and activation. In this paper, nonmetallic selenium (Se) doped into $ZnIn_2S_4$, whose surface were remolded by S atomic dissimilation. Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculated that Se atoms substituted surface sulfur (S) atoms of [In-S] surface layer. The excellent promotion for photoelectric properties of $ZnIn_2S_4$ with Se dopant benefitted for the adjusted surface properties. The built-internal electric field (B-IEF) was highly enhanced with S atomic dissimilation, which promoted charge separation of interlamination (between the [Zn-S], [S-In-S] and [In-S] layers) and achieved local electron polarization. Finally, $ZnIn_2S_3$, Seo.5 showed the improved adsorption energy and lower activation energy, the performance for CO_2 reduction was 1189.5 μ mol·g $^{-1}$ ·h $^{-1}$ for CO and 801.6 μ mol·g $^{-1}$ ·h $^{-1}$ for H_2 (CO/ H_2 : 3:2). This work reveals the relationship between surface/external modification and internal regulation of promoting photocatalytic performance of CO_2 reduction.

1. Introduction

Energy shortage and global warming due to non-renewable fossil fuels overuse are the two major challenges currently to human society [1-3]. Under wide international background of carbon neutrality, photocatalytic CO_2 reduction technology has received a lot of attention by researchers for converting anthropogenic CO_2 into high-value-added fuels directly by using solar energy [4,5]. However, the photocatalytic efficiency of CO_2 conversion is far from the expected target due to tardy carrier migration and high CO_2 activation thermodynamic energy barrier, and it is a long way to arrive industrialized conversion for photocatalytic CO_2 reduction [6].

Generally, the basic reaction processes of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction are as follows: (I) photogenerated carriers generated and separation under light irradiation absorption, (II) carriers migration to photocatalyst surface and electron-hole recombination, (III) CO_2 adsorption and utilization of surface charge, and (IV) CO_2 activation and conversion [7]. The inevitable recombination for photogenerated carriers in photocatalysts leads to their low bulk charge separation

efficiency, which is an important reason for their low photocatalytic efficiency. Besides, the surviving charge still faces the challenges of charge recombination and difficult activation of CO2 after migrating to the catalyst surface [8]. Therefore, the efficient strategies for surface modification of semiconductor photocatalysts are necessary to facilitate carrier separation and CO₂ adsorption, activation [9-11]. Doping engineering, as one of common methods for surface modification, can effectively enhance the catalytic efficiency of CO2 reduction reaction [12]. However, the actual role of doping engineering for promoting charge separation is simply discussed usually rather than explored intrinsic mechanism deeply. Zhang et al. reported the greatly improved charge separation efficiency in C-doped Bi₃O₄Cl photocatalyst for the enhanced built-internal electric field (B-IEF) firstly [13]. Since then, the strategy for modulating the B-IEF by heteroatom doping to regulate carrier separation efficiency is gradually coming into the view of researchers [14,15]. The presence of the B-IEF in a layered semiconductor has been reported to be an outstanding strategy to modulate the migration kinetics of charge separation [6,16]. It is well known that the B-IEF of layered materials can be initiated by the non-uniform charge

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distribution between the various component layers for their different chemical compositions [17,18]. Therefore, it is a smart strategy to modulate charge carriers by induced B-IEF for charge unbalance of doping engineering.

In recent years, layered metal sulfide materials with multiple components have been widely used as visible light responsive photocatalytic materials due to their narrow band gap, unique electronic and optical properties. ZnIn₂S₄, as a typical and layered AB₂X₄ ternary metal sulfide, has researched widely due to its unique layered structure and stability and has attracted many researchers in the field of energy and environment [19-21]. The layered structure of hexagonal ZnIn₂S₄ is composed of alternating stacks of [Zn-S]-[S-In-S]-[In-S] along the z-axis direction [22]. For a half unit cell ZnIn₂S₄, the surface [In-S] and [Zn-S] layers mainly contribute to the conduction band minimum (CBM) orbital and the valence band maximum (VBM) orbital respectively [23,24]. Under irradiation, photogenerated electrons would transfer from the VBM at the [Zn-S] surface layer to the CBM at the [In-S] surface layer after photoexcitation, arriving the active sites to participate the reduction reaction. The unique asymmetric of layered structure for ZnIn₂S₄ provides practicable prospect to induce B-IEF to modulate the charge dynamics [18]. However, the insufficient driving force of the B-IEF cause lower efficiency of electron-hole separation, which limits its photocatalytic activity and hinder practical photocatalytic application [25, 26]. Xiong and co-workers reported that the B-IEF of ZnIn₂S₄ was enhanced by non-metallic O-doped into [Zn-S] surface layer (VBM), promoting the electron transferring to the CBM at the [In-S] surface layer and resulting in improved photocatalytic performance [27]. Zhou et al. reported that the intrinsic electron potential well of ZnIn₂S₄ was influenced by metal In-doped into [Zn-S] surface layer (VBM), enabling the generated photogenerated electrons to be immediately utilized in the reduction half-reaction [28]. It has not report about modulating B-IEF by tuning the chemical composition of at the [In-S] surface (CBM) for doping engineering of ZnIn₂S₄. Therefore, it is a promising strategy to construct the doped ZnIn₂S₄ photocatalyst with ordered composition and accurate assemble to modulating B-IEF, which can promote carrier migration and photocatalytic performance.

In this work, nonmetallic selenium (Se) doped $ZnIn_2S_4$ ($ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$) nanosheets synthesized by simple hydrothermal method, was applied for photocatalytic CO_2 reduction. The doping site was determined by the incorporation of theoretical calculation and experimental data. The surface properties and photoelectric properties were also discussed synthetically and comprehensively. Se atoms substituting surface sulfur (S) atoms of [In-S] surface layer influence the CBM to modulate B-IEF, promoting carriers separation. Finally, the optimized $ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$ represented the outstanding activity of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction for syngas conversion. The mechanism of CO_2 adsorption, activation and conversion with enhanced built-internal electric field after surface remolding was discussed and uncovered in depth.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

Zinc chloride (ZnCl $_2$), indium (III) chloride tetrahydrate (InCl $_3$ ·4 H $_2$ O), thioacetamide (TAA), selenium powder, hydrazine hydrate (N $_2$ H $_4$ ·H $_2$ O), polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP) were obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (China). All chemicals were used without further purified in the experiments.

2.2. Synthesis of $ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$, $ZnIn_2S_4$ and $ZnIn_2Se_4$

To synthesize the ZnIn $_2$ Se $_x$ Se $_x$ by a typical hydrothermal method, 1 mmol of ZnCl $_2$, 2 mmol of InCl $_3$ ·4 H $_2$ O, and 100 mg of PVP were dissolved in 30 mL of deionized water, while 3.9/3.7/3.5/3.3 mmol of TAA and 0.1/0.3/0.5/0.7 mmol of selenium powder were dissolved in 5 mL of N $_2$ H $_4$ ·H $_2$ O and stir at 80 °C for 5 min. Subsequently, the obtained

reddish-brown solution was added drop to the above deionized aqueous solution and stirred for 30 min. Then, the mixture was retained at 220 °C for 24 h in a 50 mL Teflon-lined autoclave (Anhui Kemi Machinery Technology., LTD, China). After cooling down to room temperature, the precipitates were obtained after ethyl alcohol and deionized water washing for several times. Finally, the $\rm ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$ (x = 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7) was obtained by drying at 60 °C for 12 h in an oven. The synthesis method of $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$ was similar to that of $\rm ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$, except that 4 mmol of TAA added without selenium powder. The synthesis method of $\rm ZnIn_2Se_4$ was similar to that for $\rm ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$, except that only 4 mmol of selenium powder added without TAA.

2.3. Characterizations

The surface morphologies and the element mappings of the materials were obtained from a scanning electron microscopy (SEM, ZEISS Sigma 300, Germany). The morphologies and lattice fringes of the materials were obtained from a transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL, JEM-2100 F, Japan) with an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. The crystalline phases composition of all-prepared materials was characterized by a X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker D8 Advance, Germany) with Cu K_w $(\lambda = 1.542 \text{ Å})$. The microstructure of crystalline materials was carried out by Raman spectrum (Raman, Horiba LabRAM HR Evolution, Japan) with 532 nm laser wavelength from 50 \sim 4000 cm⁻¹. The electronic structures and chemical states of elements were analysis by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Shimadzu KRATOS AXIS SUPRA+, Japan) with an exciting source of Al K_{α} (0.1 eV). The surface potential of the samples was measured before and after light exposure using a Kelvin probe force microscope (KPFM, Bruker Dimension Icon, Germany). Zeta potential was obtained from Zetasizer Nano (Malvern, ZS90, Britain). Contact angle was carried out to examine the surface hydrophilia of the samples (JY-82 C, Chengde, China). The BET adsorption and desorption isotherms, pore size distribution was performed on a Belsorp-Mini II analyzer (Japan). The surface photovoltage spectra was conducted from a surface photovoltage spectrometer (SPV, CEL-SPS1000, Beijing, China). The second harmonic generation (SHG) signal was tested with an Agilent E5061B network analyzer. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra were obtained and excited at 295 nm by a fluorescence spectrophotometer (Hitachi F4500, Japan) at room temperature. The timeresolved fluorescence spectrofluorometer (TRPL, Edinburgh FS5, Britain) with 295 nm excited wavelength was used to record the fluorescence emission spectra. The photocurrent response was tested in Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution (0.2 M, pH = 6.8) using an electrochemical workstation (Chenhua Instrument Co., Shanghai, China) with a three-electrode electrochemical system that Ag/AgCl electrode, Pt electrode, and fluoride tin oxide (FTO) with covered as-prepared photocatalysts (active area of $1.0 \times 1.0 \text{ cm}^2$) were used as the reference electrode, counter electrode, and working electrode, respectively. The preparation process of the working electrode: 20 mg photocatalysts were dispersed in 200 μL of ethyl alcohol and 30 μL of Nafion to obtain a suspension after ultrasonic treatment, then coated onto the FTO glass substrate uniformly. After that, the coated FTO glass was dried at 60 °C. An integrating sphere-equipped UV-vis spectrophotometer (DRS, Cary 300, America) was used to capture the diffuse reflection spectra (DRS) in the UV-vis range. The intermediate products for CO₂ adsorption and reduction were analyzed from in-situ Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (in-situ FTIR, Bruker INVENIO R, Germany).

2.4. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction measurements

The performance evaluation of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction was proceeded in a 50 mL quartz tube at atmospheric pressure and ambient temperature. Typically, 4 mg photocatalyst, 2 μ mol $CoCl_2$, 15 mg bipyridine, 3 mL acetonitrile, 2 mL H₂O, and 1 mL TEOA were added in a gas-closed quartz tube. The quartz tube was purged with pure CO_2 gas for 30 min to completely remove air and filled with 1.0 atm of pure CO_2 .

A 200 W of white LED lamp (420 nm $\leq \lambda \leq$ 800 nm) was used as the irradiation source. The temperature was maintained at room temperature and the position of the tube was changed every 30 mins. After the reaction, the generated products (CO and H₂) were analyzed qualitatively and quantitively by a gas chromatograph (FL GC9790II, Zhejiang, China) equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) and a thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Morphological and structural characterization

The typical preparation process of Se doped ZnIn₂S₄ was presented in Fig. S1. Firstly, TAA and Se powder, as the sources of sulfur and selenium respectively, is dispersed in N₂H₄-H₂O at 80 °C to form a homogeneous red-brown solution, which hold strong reduction properties. Then, above solution is added dropwise to the solution containing polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP), ZnCl₂ and InCl₃. The stable microemulsion is formed after mixing of hydrophobic alkyl group of PVP surfactant and S-N₂H₄ and Se-N₂H₄. Finally, Se doped ZnIn₂S₄ with ultrathin nanosheet morphology is obtained after Oswald Ripening in the process of hydrothermal method. The microscopic morphologies of ZnIn₂S₄, ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} and ZnIn₂Se₄ were characterized using scanning electron microscopy (Fig. 1a-c). It is noteworthy that the morphology of ZnIn₂S₄ transforms from stacking nanosheets to dispersed nanosheets after Se doping, which may facilitate the carrier separation [29]. It is needed to further investigate the effect on the microscopic influences of ZnIn₂S₄ after Se doping.

TEM mapping shows that ZnIn₂S_{3,5}Se_{0,5} displays a uniform

distribution of Zn, In, S, and Se elements (Fig. S2). As depicted in Fig. 1d and Fig. S3a, the lattice spacing of $ZnIn_2S_4$ is 0.306 nm and 0.330 nm, which are corresponding to the {008} and {101} planes respectively [18,30]. Meanwhile, Fig. 1e and Fig. S3b shows its hexagonal atomic arrangement, revealing a standard hexagonal crystal type $ZnIn_2S_4$. The lattice spacings of $ZnIn_2S_3.5Se_{0.5}$ are 0.306 nm and 0.353 nm, which are corresponding to the {008} and {007} planes respectively [31]. There is lattice expansion for $ZnIn_2S_4$ {008} lattice planes after Se doping compared with normal lattice plane (0.325 nm) from Fig. 1f and Fig. S3c). It is attributed that Se atoms substituted S atom cause local lattice distortion (Fig. 1g and Fig. S3d).

XRD spectra was collected to study the phase and crystallographic characteristics of Se doped ZnIn₂S₄. It confirms the hexagonal structure of $ZnIn_2S_4$ and $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ (JCPDS No. 24–1447), which is consistent with the HRTEM analysis (Fig. S4). The characteristic peaks at 22.21°, 25.43°, 26.91°, 27.51° and 47.28° for ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} are corresponding to {007}, {008}, {101}, {102} and {111} planes, respectively. No other peaks detected indicate that pure ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} is synthesized successfully. The synthesized pure ZnIn₂Se₄ with 27.01° and 44.82° characteristic peaks (JCPDS No. 39-0458), are corresponding to {112} and {204} planes, respectively. It is worthy to note that all characteristic diffraction peaks of the Se doped ZnIn₂S₄ are shifted to a lower angle compared with ZnIn₂S₄, especially {007} and {008} lattice peaks (Fig. 1h). It indicates that the lattice is expanded [32]. This transformation can be attributed to the larger ionic radius of Se²⁻ (1.98 Å) compared with that of S²⁻ (1.84 Å) [33]. Se atom introduction cause atomic distortion due to surrounding atoms re-arrangement, which is consistent to HRTEM analysis.

Raman spectroscopy is an effective tool to further corroborate the

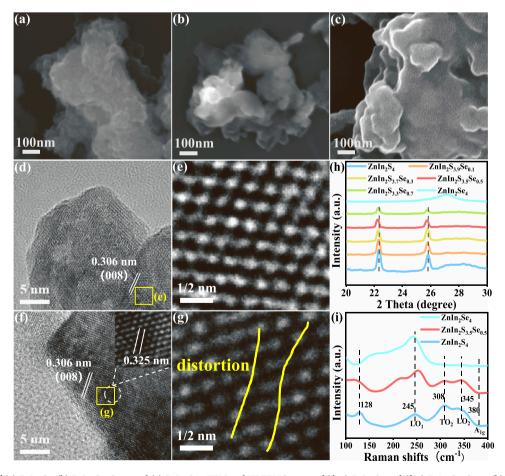


Fig. 1. SEM images of (a) $ZnIn_2S_4$, (b) $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ and (c) $ZnIn_2S_{4}$. TEM and HRTEM images of (d, e) $ZnIn_2S_4$ and (f, g) $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$. (h) Partial magnified XRD patterns of $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_4$, ZnIn

doping of Se atoms into the $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$ lattice, as shown in Fig. 1i. Raman spectrum for pure $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$ shows five characteristic peaks at 128, 245, 308, 345, and 380 cm⁻¹ [34,35]. The characteristic peak at 128 cm⁻¹ indicates the structural character of layered hexagonal $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$. The characteristic peaks at 245 cm⁻¹ and 345 cm⁻¹ are associated with the longitudinal optical modes ($\rm LO_1$ and $\rm LO_2$). The characteristic peak at 308 cm⁻¹ and 380 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to the transverse optical mode ($\rm TO_2$) and $\rm A_{1\,g}$ mode. $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ shows reduced intensity and broadening of the characteristic peaks at 128, 308, 345, 380 cm⁻¹ compared with $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$, which can be attributed to the reduced crystal symmetry due to the influence of Se doping [36,37]. Meanwhile, the increased peak intensity at 245 cm⁻¹ of $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ suggests that Se has been doped into $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$ successfully. All in all, the Se atoms are introduced into $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$ lattice with expanded and distorted state.

3.2. Exploration of doping site and doping behavior

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was carried out to further inspect the chemical states and electronic configuration of elements after Se doping. The full spectrum of $ZnIn_2S_4$ demonstrates the presence of Zn, In, and S elements, and $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ reveals the coexistence of Zn, In, S, and Se elements, while $ZnIn_2Se_4$ with only Zn, In, and Se (Fig. S5a-c). No other peaks of impurities are present as the same as XRD and Raman results, indicating the successful Se doping. Table S1 showed the XPS fitting data of elements area for $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ and $ZnIn_2Se_4$ and area ratio of elements. the final compositions are close to the addition ratios of the raw materials. Fig. 2ad showed High-resolution XPS spectra of Zn 2p, In 3d, S 2p and Se 3d for $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ and $ZnIn_2S_4$. As for Zn 2p, the binding energies of $Zn 2p_{1/2}$ and $Zn 2p_{3/2}$ are $Zn 2p_{3/2}$ are $Zn 2p_{3/2}$ are $Zn 2p_{3/2}$ are $Zn 2p_{3/2}$ and $Zn 2p_{3/2}$, while

1044.60 eV and 1021.63 eV for ZnIn₂S₃ ₅Se₀ ₅. The binding energies of Zn 2p for ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} shift 0.03 eV to higher binding energy compared to that for ZnIn₂S₄. As for In 3d, 452.12 eV and 444.58 eV are corresponding to the binding energies of In 3d_{3/2} and In 3d_{5/2} for ZnIn₂S₄, while 452.02 eV and 444.58 eV for ZnIn₂S_{3,5}Se_{0.5}. The binding energies of In 3d for ZnIn₂S_{3,5}Se_{0,5} shift 0.10 eV to lower binding energy compared to that for ZnIn₂S₄. The S 2p of ZnIn₂S₄ is decomposed into two separated peaks at 162.46 eV and 161.28 eV, which are indexed as S $2p_{1/2}$ and S $2p_{3/2},$ respectively, while 162.70 eV and 161.52 eV for $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}.$ As for Se 3d, $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ has two peaks at 54.83 eV (Se $3d_{3/2}$) and 53.97 eV (Se $3d_{5/2}$), while $ZnIn_2S_4$ has no Se 3d peaks. The binding energies of S 2p for ZnIn₂S_{3,5}Se_{0,5} shift 0.24 eV to higher binding energy compared to that for ZnIn₂S₄. Compared with the shift level of Zn 2p and In 3d, Se atom may substitute S atom adjacent with In atom [27,38]. The negative shift of In 3d and positive shift of S 2p after Se doping in ZnIn₂S₄ indicate that surface charges are accumulated near In atom adjacent with Se atom. It is due to the weaker electronegativity (Se and S: 2.40 and 2.50) and the lower electron gaining ability of Se

Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculation were conducted to further clarify Se doping sites and behavior mechanism arising from Se doping. The calculation methods were described in the calculation details (Text S1). The layered structure of hexagonal $ZnIn_2S_4$ is composed of alternating stacks of [Zn-S]-[S-In-S]-[In-S] along the z-axis direction (Fig. S6). There are four structural models of Se substitution in $ZnIn_2S_4$: S atoms of [Zn-S] layer, S atoms of [Zn-S-In] layer, S atoms of [In-S-In] layer and S atoms of [In-S] layer (Fig. 2e-h). The Se doping site can be determined by the compared substituting energy of S (E_S). The E_S is calculated to be 0.649, 0.564, 0.603, 0.536 eV respectively. It is obvious that Se substituting the surface S atom of [In-S] layer needs the lowest

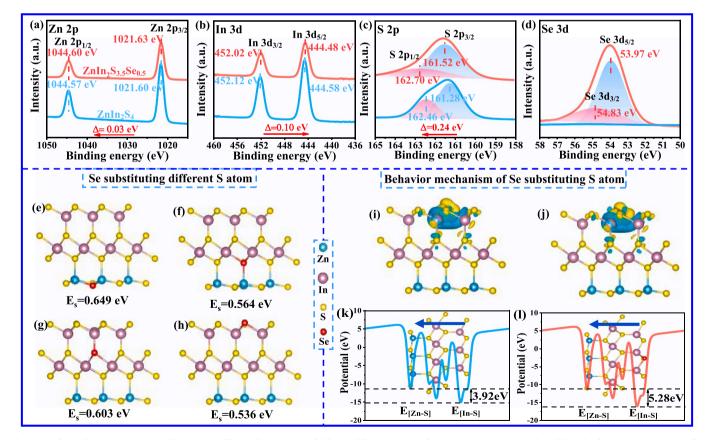


Fig. 2. High-resolution XPS spectra of (a) Zn 2p, (b) In 3d, (c) S 2p and (d) Se 3d for $ZnIn_2S_4$ and $ZnIn_2S_3._5Se_{0.5}$. Structural model and substituting energy (E_s) for atomic Se substituting different S atoms in $ZnIn_2S_4$: (e) S atoms of [Zn-S] layer, (f) S atoms of [Zn-S-In] layer, (g) S atoms of [In-S-In] layer and (h) S atoms of [In-S] layer and corresponding E_S. Differential charge density of (i) $ZnIn_2S_4$ and (j) $ZnIn_2S_3._5Se_{0.5}$. (The yellow color represents charge accumulation and the blue color represents charge depletion) Electrostatic potentials for (k) $ZnIn_2S_4$ and (l) $ZnIn_2S_3._5Se_{0.5}$.

substitution energy (E_S=0.536 eV). Se doped into ZnIn₂S₄ tends to substitute the S of [In-S] layer certainly combining XPS analysis and calculation results. Differential charge density and electrostatic potentials were calculated to further investigate the electronic behavior and B-IEF after Se doping. As the same as XPS analysis, Se doping promotes surface charges to accumulate the areas In atom adjacent with Se atom, resulting in local charge polarization of ZnIn₂S₄ [In-S] layer (Fig. 2i and i). Se atom substituting S atom of [In-S] layers break the atomic homogenization of ZnIn₂S₄ surface, which cause the inhomogeneous charge distribution and more negative potential for [In-S] layer. Fig. 2k showed the calculated electrostatic potential of the ZnIn₂S₄. Notably, unequal charge distribution and electrostatic potential between the [Zn-S], [S-In-S] and [In-S] layers suggest the presence of vertical B-IEF within pure ZnIn₂S₄, which drive the internal separation of charge carriers. The direction of B-IEF is opposite to the electron transfer direction, pointing from the [In-S] layer to the [Zn-S] layer. The B-IEF intensity within pure ZnIn₂S₄ is estimated by the difference value in local electrostatic potential (ΔE) between the [Zn-S] and [In-S] layers for quantitative analysis. $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ exhibits a larger ΔE (5.28 eV) compared to that of pure ZnIn₂S₄ (3.92 eV), indicating the stronger B-IEF within it (Fig. 21). Such an enhanced B-IEF effectively promotes photogenerated carrier separation and suppresses bulk electron-hole pair complexation. The above theoretical calculations indicate the directivity and the enhanced intensity of B-IEF.

The B-IEF magnitude could be calculated according to the Kanata's model, which is related to surface charge density, Zeta potential and surface potential [13]. It is reported that the Kanata's model as following Eq. (1) [39–43]:

$$E = (-2V_{\rm S}\rho/\varepsilon\varepsilon_0)^{1/2} \tag{1}$$

Where E is B-IEF value, $V_{\rm S}$ is the surface voltage, ρ is the surface charge density, ε is the low-frequency dielectric constant, and ε_0 is the vacuum dielectric constant. ε and ε_0 are two constants, so B-IEF is mainly determined by the surface potential and the surface charge density. The $V_{\rm S}$ can be obtained from AFM with KPFM model (Fig. 3a and b). The corresponding potential difference (Δ CPD) before and after light exposure is 7.23 mV and 11.20 mV for ZnIn₂S₄ and ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}, respectively. The ρ can be tested and calculated by the according to the following Eq. (2):

$$\rho = \sqrt{8kT\varepsilon\varepsilon_0 n} \sinh(ze_0 \varphi_0 / 2kT)$$
 (2)

Where k is the Boltzmann constant, T is absolute temperature, n is Number of electrolytes per unit volume, e_0 is electron charge, z is electrolyte valence, ϕ_0 is surface potential. For the ϕ_0 , there is an approximately Eq. (3):

$$\phi_0 = \xi(1 + D/\alpha_1)e^{\kappa D} \tag{3}$$

 ξ is Zeta potential (23.30 for ZnIn $_2S_4$), 27.50 for ZnIn $_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$), which can be obtained by experimental examine (Fig. 3c), D is distance from Sliding Layer to Particle Surface, α_1 is Particle Stokes radius, κ is Debye length. From the above equations, the B-IEF (E) can be approximately concluded into a function of surface potential V_S and Zeta potential ξ :

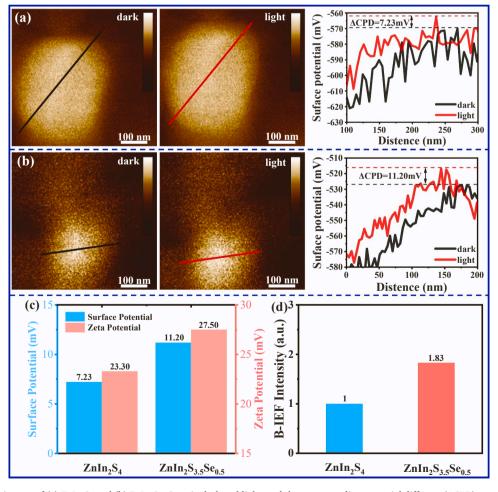


Fig. 3. KPFM potential images of (a) $ZnIn_2S_4$ and (b) $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ in dark and light, and the corresponding potential different (ΔCPD) curves along straight line of the image. (c) Surface potential, Zeta potential and (d) B-IEF intensity of $ZnIn_2S_4$ and $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$.

$$E = (AV_S sinh(\frac{ze_0\xi(1+D/\alpha_1)e^{\kappa D}}{2kT}))^{1/2} \tag{4} \label{eq:energy}$$

It can be clearly seen from Eq. (4) (A is simplified constant), the B-IEF will increase with the increase of V_S and ξ . Then the B-IEF intensity of $ZnIn_2S_4$ is normalized as "1", and as such, the B-IEF intensity of $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ is obtained to be 1.83 (Fig. 3d). The increased surface potential from experimental data and B-IEF magnitude from Kanata's model prove that surface modification of Se doping could modulate internal properties of B-IEF efficiently for promoting electrons migration. All in all, Se atoms substituting S atoms of [In-S] layer accelerate surface charges to accumulate the areas In atom adjacent with Se atom, and cause the stronger B-IEF to suppresses bulk recombination and promote separation for photogenerated carriers.

3.3. Characterization of surface and photoelectric properties, bandgap structure

DFT calculation indicated that surface remolding of atomic dissimilation (Se atom substituting S atom of [In-S] layers) could regulate internal properties (promoting B-IEF intensity) of photocatalyst. It is needed to investigate surface and photoelectric properties generally in experimentally. The static contact angles of different photocatalysts were measured to investigate surface hydrophilicity (Fig. S7). The static

contact angle for $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$ (x = 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7) and ZnIn₂Se₄ is 68.09°, 62.37°, 58.11°, 54.16°, 66.87° and 68.30° respectively (Fig. 4a). The contact angle of ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} is smallest among all the examined photocatalysts. It is reported that the surface hydrophilicity can improve photocatalytic performance of CO₂ reduction [23]. The specific surface areas of $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$ (x = 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7) and ZnIn₂Se₄ (shown in Fig. S8) were 14.9, 28.4, 30.0, 31.9, 19.2 and 14.7, respectively, with ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} holding the largest specific surface area. The larger average pore size of ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} compared to ZnIn₂S₄ is also beneficial for CO₂ adsorption (Fig. 4b). Surface photovoltage (SPV) spectra is an important means for monitoring the charge separation, transferring and accumulation in Fig. 4c. ZnIn₂S₄, ZnIn₂S_{3,5}Se_{0,5} and ZnIn₂Se₄ exhibited distinct SPV responses in the range of 300 \sim 550 nm [44,45]. The main SPV peaks of $ZnIn_2S_4$ and ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} is around 350 nm, while ZnIn₂Se₄ exhibited a broader peak. Meanwhile, the positive signal of ZnIn₂S₄, ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} and ZnIn₂Se₄ indicates efficient separation in the bulk and ordered migration to the surface for photogenerated carriers, which present behavior of n-type semiconductors [46]. The enhanced surface photovoltage of ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} indicates the richer density of accumulated photogenerated electrons on ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}. The charge density contour plots of $ZnIn_2S_4$ and $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ was also supplemented to inspect electron localization (Fig. 4d-g). It shows that Se atoms substituting S atom breaks the atomic S homogenization on [In-S] layer of ZnIn₂S₄, leading

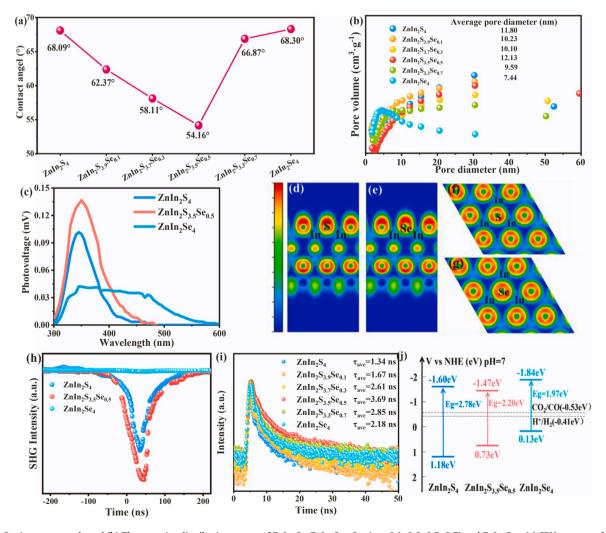


Fig. 4. (a) Static contact angle and (b) The pore size distribution curves of $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$ (x=0.1,0.3,0.5,0.7) and $ZnIn_2Se_4$. (c) SPV spectrum for $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ and $ZnIn_2S_4$, (e) side view and (g) top view for $ZnIn_2S_4$, (h) SHG signals for $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ and $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ and $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ and $ZnIn_2Se_4$. (i) TRPL decay spectra of $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_5$, Z

to in-homogenous charge distribution. Meanwhile, the electron-gaining ability for Se is poorer than that for S due to the weaker electronegativity of Se (Se: 2.4, S: 2.5). The electrons are tended to accumulate on adjacent In atom with Se. Besides, second harmonic generation (SHG) further reveals the macroscopic polarity difference between ZnIn₂S₄ and ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} (Fig. 4h) [47]. Obviously, ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} produces the largest SHG reaction, which means that the ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} surface is more polarized than the ZnIn₂S₄ and ZnIn₂Se₄ surfaces. Likewise, the enhanced B-IEF also actuate photogenerated electrons to the surface from the higher photocurrent density of Se doped ZnIn₂S₄ samples in Fig. S9a. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra was examined to investigated the separation behavior of photogenerated carriers in Fig. S9b. Se doped ZnIn₂S₄ showed the reduced luminescence intensity compared to pure ZnIn₂S₄, and the lowest intensity for ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}, indicating that Se dopants in ZnIn₂S₄ can promote carriers separation under powerful driving force of enhanced B-IEF. Besides, time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) experiments were performed to study the lifetimes of photogenerated carriers in Fig. 4i. The average electron lifetimes of the photocatalysts are 1.34, 1.67, 2.61, 3.69, 2.85 and 2.18 ns, respectively. The ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} holds the longest electron lifetime, which is about 2.75 times for pure ZnIn₂S₄, indicating the suppressed charge recombination under enhanced B-IEF to participate in the CO2 reduction efficiently.

The bandgap structure should be explored seriously beside of surface and photoelectric properties. Density of states (DOS) profiles (Fig. S10) shows that Se dopants substituting S atoms presents substantial increase in VBM and CBM density, which indicates enhanced capacities of electron donating and electron accepting and increased carrier concentration [18]. Moreover, the bandgap is narrowed and new energy levels appear at the bottom of the CB, which are contributed by In, S and Se. Se atoms doping affects the distribution of In and S atoms in the lattice, resulting in orbital hybridization between In, S and Se atoms [48]. In short, Se doping shortens the bandgap and enhances the carrier concentration, which promotes optical absorption and charge separation. As depicted in UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) (Fig. S11a), pure ZnIn₂S₄ shows an absorption edge at about 550 nm, while the intrinsic absorption edge of Se doped ZnIn₂S₄ samples shows significant red shift with increasing Se doping. The color of the photocatalyst samples change from a visual yellowish to an orange-red (Fig S12a-f). The band gaps of ZnIn₂S₄, ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}, and ZnIn₂Se₄ samples is calculated to be 2.78, 2.20, and 1.97 eV, respectively, by the Kubelka-Munk function (Fig. S11b). Meanwhile, valence band levels of ZnIn₂S₄, ZnIn₂S₃ ₅Se₀ ₅, and ZnIn₂Se₄ samples is estimated to be 1.18, 0.73, and 0.13 eV respectively from XPS valence band (VB) spectroscopy (Fig. S11c). The conduction band (CB) levels are calculated to be -1.60, -1.47, and -1.84 eV, respectively. Eventually, the diagram of band structure was shown in Fig. 4j. As can be seen, all prepared photocatalysts fulfill potential requirement for CO2 conversion to CO absolutely from the bandgap structure. The Se doped ZnIn₂S₄ photocatalyst will present efficient photocatalytic activity for CO₂ reduction, which is benefitted for better surface properties, enhanced photoelectric properties, suitable bandgap structure.

3.4. Photocatalytic performance for CO2 conversion

The photocatalytic performance of CO_2 reduction was performed in a system with white LED lamp as the light source, H_2O and acetonitrile as the solution, and $Co(bpy)_3^{2^+}$ (bpy = 2, 2 - bipyridine) and triethanolamine (TEOA) as the co-catalyst and sacrificial agent, respectively. The product chromatograms (CO and H_2) for the CO_2 reduction over $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$ ($x=0.1,\ 0.3,\ 0.5,\ 0.7$) and $ZnIn_2Se_4$ photocatalysts with retention time at 5.3 min and 2.3 min were shown in Fig. S13. It is clearly that the photocatalytic CO_2 reduction products are indeed CO and H_2 combined with the gas chromatographic peak times (about 5.3 min and 2.3 min) for the CO and H_2 standards (Fig. S14a and Fig. S15a). Subsequently, the yields of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction can

be calculated from the standard curves of CO and H2 (Fig. S14b and Fig. S15b). The photocatalytic performance of pure ZnIn₂S₄ is 307.5 μ mol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ for CO and 609.2 μ mol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ for H₂ (CO/H₂ molar ratio is 1:2) in Fig. 5a. The photocatalytic performance for CO₂ conversion over $ZnIn_2S_{4-x}Se_x$ samples (x = 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7) increases with Se incorporation. The ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} shows the most excellent performance for CO₂ conversion rate (CO: 1189.5 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ and H₂: 801.6 $\mu mol\cdot g^{-1}\cdot h^{-1},$ CO/H $_2$ molar ratio is 3/2), which is about 3.87 and 1.32 times than for pure ZnIn₂S₄. It also shows good photocatalytic performance compared with other reported ZnIn₂S₄-based photocatalyst systems for photocatalytic CO2 reduction (Table S2). It is noticed that the performance decrease when the amount of Se substitution continued to increase. With the increasing Se amount, the XRD peak intensity of ZnIn₂S_{3.7}Se_{0.3} is reduced and the characteristic peak at 27.01° (JCPDS No. 39-0458) is enhanced compared to ZnIn2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}, indicating a second phase formation in ZnIn₂Se₄ (Fig. S16). The new second phase may act as recombination center of photogenerated charge, thus leading to performance degradation for CO₂ reduction. Moreover, both ZnIn₂S₄ and $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ exhibits durable photocatalytic reactivity for 4 h photoreaction, producing CO of 1230 μmol·g⁻¹ and 4387.5 μmol·g⁻¹, and H_2 of 2437.5 μ mol·g⁻¹ and 2785 μ mol·g⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 5b). The assessment for photocatalytic performance of CO₂ reduction indicates that Se atom substituting S atom of [In-S] layers improve the photocatalytic efficiency of CO2 reduction significantly. A series of controlled experiments were conducted to investigate the effect of experimental conditions (Fig. 5c). The results suggest that the catalyst, illumination, CO₂, co-catalyst (Co(bpy) $_3^{2+}$) and sacrificial agent (TEOA) are necessary for the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction reaction. Meanwhile, there are 400.8 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ for H₂ evolution and no CO production in the photocatalytic CO2 reduction, which indicate that the generated CO are originated from CO2 conversion. Wavelength-dependent photocatalytic performance of CO2 reduction over ZnIn2S4 and ZnIn2S3.5Se0.5 was inspected in Fig. S17. As discerned, the CO and H2 yield over ZnIn₂S₄ and ZnIn₂S_{3,5}Se_{0,5} matched well with the UV-vis absorption spectrum, confirming that the CO2 reduction reaction was certainly triggered by irradiation. Detailly, the CO (H2) yield over ZnIn2S4 and ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} is 287.1 (638.2) and 1112.1 (941.5), 215.6 (488.2) and 839.8 (690.7), 114.8 (282.4) and 546.4 (503.6), 22.3 (51.2) and 154.4 (165.8), 1.3 (11.7) and 4.9 (22.2) μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ under 350, 420, 450, 500, 550 nm respectively. Finally, the photocatalytic activity of CO2 reduction over ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} maintains stable after five cycles examination (Fig. 5d). XRD pattern, morphology characteristics (SEM image and TEM image) of ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} after 5 cyclic reaction for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction were investigated (Fig. S18). There is no significant change in crystal structure or surface morphology after five recycle experiments, which indicates the outstanding durability of $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$.

3.5. Mechanism discussion for CO₂ conversion

The intermediates in the process of CO₂ adsorption, activation and conversion on the surface of ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} were precisely tracked by in situ FTIR spectra to gain insight into the reaction pathway and mechanism for CO2 reduction. As shown in Fig. 6a, the new peaks appeared and gradually increased at 1283, 1310, 1361, 1420, 1486, 1693 and 2076 cm⁻¹ with increasing irradiation time. Among them, the peaks at 1310 and 1361 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the $v_s(CO_3)$ mode of bidentate carbonate species (*b- CO_3^2 -), and the peak around 1486 cm $^{-1}$ is assigned to the $\nu_s(CO_3)$ mode of monodentate carbonate species (*m-CO₃²-) [49, 50]. The peak areas of *b- CO_3^2 are much larger than that of *m- CO_3^2 , which indicates that double bond is the main intermediates form in the process of adsorption and activation of CO₂ molecule over ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} [51,52]. Meanwhile, the gradual increasing of 1283, 1420 and 1693 cm⁻¹ peaks indicate the formation and accumulation of *COOH on ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}, which are attributed to the O-H bending, C-O stretching and C=O stretching respectively [53-55]. And the peak at 2076 cm⁻¹

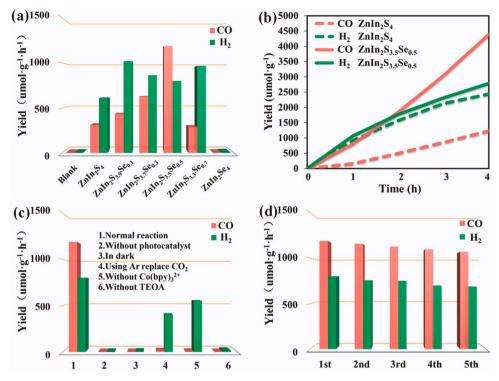


Fig. 5. (a) Visible-light-driven CO_2 reduction of Blank, $ZnIn_2S_4$, $ZnIn_2S_$

indicates the generation of CO as a final product. Besides, peaks at 2374, 2348, and 2317 cm $^{-1}$ are attributed to asymmetric stretching of surface CO $_2$ molecules (Fig. S19a). At the same time, adsorbed gas-phase CO $_2$ are also detected at 3725, 3705, 3625, and 3592 cm $^{-1}$, accompanied by surface-bound OH separated from adsorbed H $_2$ O (\sim 3538 cm $^{-1}$) from weak overtone bands (Fig. S19b) [56]. Based on the above analysis, a possible mechanism for the CO $_2$ reduction half-reaction occurring on the surface of ZnIn $_2$ S $_3$, Se $_0$.5 is deduced as the following: (1) adsorption of CO $_2$ molecules on the surface in the form of double bonds, (2) activation of the adsorbed *CO $_2$ to obtain a carboxyl intermediate *COOH (*CO $_2$ + H $^+$ + e $^-$ *COOH), (3) reduction and subsequent separation of *COOH through a proton-electron transfer reduction process to produce *CO (*COOH + H $^+$ + e $^-$ *CO + H $_2$ O), (4) desorption of CO (*CO \rightarrow CO).

Subsequently, the adsorption and activation behaviors for CO2 on pristine $ZnIn_2S_4$ and $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ surfaces were theoretically investigated by first-principles density functional theory (DFT) calculations (Fig. S20). The adsorbed CO2 (noted as *CO2, where "*" denotes the adsorption state on the material surface) had a curved configuration with an angle of $\approx 120^{\circ}$, which is similar to the CO²⁻ anion. It indicates that the activation of CO2 molecules on both pristine ZnIn2S4 and ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} surfaces could be achieved [57,58]. Differential charge density (DCD) and adsorption energy calculations (Fig. 6b, Table S3) display that the adsorption energy of CO₂ adsorbed by ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} (-1.89 eV) is more negative than that of pristine ZnIn_2S_4 (-1.24 eV). ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} has a stronger adsorption capacity for CO₂ than pristine ZnIn₂S₄. The strong binding interaction between CO₂ and ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} may be due to the formed local charge polarization on the surface by Se substituting S forming, which further provide an abundance of active sites to enhance CO2 adsorption. The free energy diagram for the adsorption and dissociation of CO2 reduction on ZnIn2S4 and ZnIn₂S_{3,5}Se_{0,5} surfaces was further calculated in Fig. 6c and Fig. S21. Because of the enhanced adsorption of CO₂ on ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} surface, there is a lower energy barrier to be overcome for *CO2 adsorption on ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} than that of ZnIn₂S₄. The conversion of *CO₂ to *COOH over ZnIn₂S₄ requires an energy barrier of 2.46 eV, while only 2.32 eV over ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}. It indicates that the formation of *COOH on

 $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ surface is more favorable thermodynamically than on $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$ surface. The transformation from *COOH to *CO on $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ surface is easily achieved due to the downward slope of the free energy curve. Moreover, the release of CO from $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ is more favorable since energy barrier for *CO desorption on $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ (0.09 eV) is lower than that on $\rm ZnIn_2S_4$ (0.14 eV). In brief, $\rm ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ can promote CO₂ reduction due to the formed local charge polarization through Se substituting S, which could reduce the CO₂ activation energy barrier by stabilizing the *COOH intermediate.

The mechanism for improved photocatalytic performance of CO₂ reduction over ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} were proposed under the effect of enhanced B-IEF based on above theoretical calculations and experimental results in Fig. 6d. The surface modification (Se atom substituting S atoms of [In-S] layers) alters the local crystal structure of the ZnIn₂S₄, which leads to surface reconstruction of electronic configuration and accelerates surface charges to accumulate In atom adjacent with Se atom. The charge polarization of [In-S] layer in turn leads to the severe inhomogeneity of charge distribution within ZnIn₂S₄, which induces an enhanced B-IEF intensity from [In-S] layer to [Zn-S] layer. It is truly that external/surface modification that affects internal regulation by modulating B-IEF intensity. Under irradiation, the photogenerated electronhole pairs undergo effective separation under enhanced B-IEF, in which the photogenerated holes are preserved the [Zn-S] layer preferentially while the photogenerated electrons migrate to the [In-S] layer spontaneously. CO2 molecule is more readily adsorbed on the ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} surface due to charge polarization of [In-S] layer by Se atoms substituting S atoms. Finally, the adsorbed CO2 is reduced to CO product gradually by $^*CO_2 \rightarrow ^*COOH \rightarrow ^*CO \rightarrow CO$ process with the help of co-catalyst (Co(bpy)₃ 2+) and hole sacrificial agent (TEOA) because of the suitable CB position of $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$.

4. Conclusion

In summary, nonmetallic selenium (Se) doped $ZnIn_2S_4$ ($ZnIn_2S_{4-x}$. Se_x) nanosheets synthesized by simple hydrothermal method, was applied for photocatalytic CO_2 reduction. During the formation of the

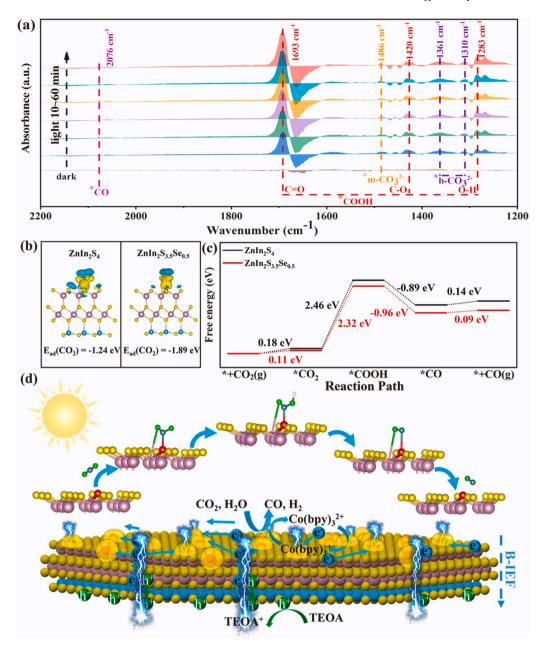


Fig. 6. (a) In situ FTIR spectra for adsorption and photocatalytic activation of CO₂ over ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}. (b) Differential charge density and adsorption energy of CO₂ over ZnIn₂S₄ and ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}. (c) Calculated free energy diagram for the adsorption and dissociation of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction on ZnIn₂S₄ and ZnIn₂S_{3.5}Se_{0.5} surfaces. (d) Schematic diagram of CO₂ adsorption, activation and conversion over ZnIn₂S₄ with Se atom substituting S atom of [In-S] layers under enhanced B-IEF.

[In-S] layer of ZnIn₂S₄, Se was doped in the tetrahedral S sites of ZnIn₂S₄, leading to a local disordered structure of the crystal and triggering a local electronic structure reconstruction, resulting in an enhanced B-IEF, which promotes the separation and transport of photogenerated charges. Simultaneously, Se doping reconfigures the active site of the reaction, enhances the adsorption capacity of the catalyst for CO2 and lowers the activation energy barrier of CO2, and achieves efficient and selective syngas conversion. Compared with pristine ZnIn₂S₄, the optimal Se doping amount of ZnIn₂S₄ exhibited good photocatalytic CO2 reduction performance. The performance of $ZnIn_2S_{3.5}Se_{0.5}$ with the best Se doping amount was 1189.5 $umol\cdot g^{-1}\cdot h^{-1}$ for CO and 801.6 $\text{umol} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ for H₂, with 3.87 and 1.32 times increase in CO and H2 yields, and the CO/H2 ratio was about 3:2. And the photocatalytic activity was maintained at 88% after 5 cycles of stability experiments. This work provides a viable strategy to overcome the slow charge kinetics and CO₂ adsorption activation difficulties of

photocatalytic CO_2 reduction and opens the way for the development of $ZnIn_2S_4$ -based semiconductors as efficient CO_2 reduction photocatalysts.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Xingshen Yi: Methodology, Writing – original draft, Investigation. Shuqu Zhang: Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Project administration. Hao Shen: Investigation. Bing Li: Supervision, Validation. Lixia Yang: Supervision, Validation. Weili Dai: Supervision, Validation. Renjie Song: Supervision, Validation. Jianping Zou: Supervision, Validation. Shenglian Luo: Supervision, Validation.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial

interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.123003.

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